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THE

SENTIAL USES OF THE MOODS

IN GREEK AND LATIN

SET FORTH IN

PARALLEL ARRANGEMENT.

By R. P. Keep, Ph.D.

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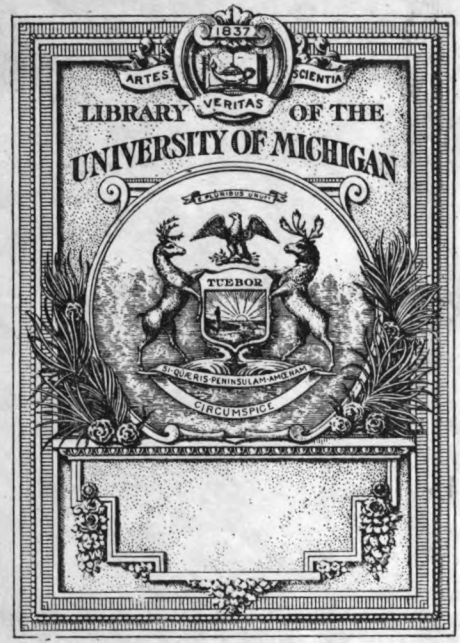

THE GIFT OF
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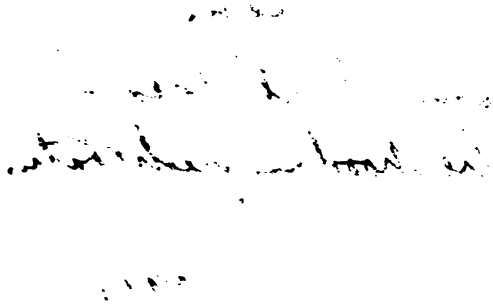

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THE

ESSENTIAL USES OF THE MOODS

IN GREEK AND LATIN

SET FORTH IN

PARALLEL ARRANGEMENT.

Εὐμνημόνευτα ὅσα τάξιν τινὰ ἔχει.

ARISTOTLE, *περὶ μνήμης.*

BOSTON:
PUBLISHED BY GINN & COMPANY.
1886.

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GINN AND HEATH.
1879.

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PREFACE.

THE classification of sentences, upon which the treatment of the Moods in this pamphlet is based, is that of the English Public School Latin Primer: it is compactly exhibited in the Analysis on page v. The aim of the Editor has been to describe, clearly and accurately, in language not too technical, the actual uses of the moods in Latin and Greek; and he has been especially on his guard against the danger of misstating any usage, or misrepresenting its frequency, for the sake of a more complete parallelism. A Parallel Syntax is not less instructive for the divergences of idiom which it discloses, than for the coincidences which it illustrates.

Experienced teachers best realize how often, after much attention given to the subject, even good scholars show themselves unable to recognize and distinguish the common, essentially different uses of the moods. And yet the subject is not hopelessly obscure, and it is so vitally important that, in its outlines at least, it should be grasped by every scholar.

The points which have received particular attention, and in the statement of which great pains have been taken, are the following: to sharply distinguish between the uses of the moods in inde-

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pendent and dependent sentences; to show how the uses of the moods in substantive clauses (in their three varieties) are affected by subordination (in *Oratio Obliqua*); to set forth the nature of the fourfold classification of conditional sentences; to explain what is meant by a general or indefinite condition; and to unfold the important analogy between the uses of the moods in indefinite conditional, and in temporal clauses.

Acknowledgment of important obligations is due to the Rev. HERBERT W. SNEYD-KYNNERSLEY'S "Parallel Syntax of Greek and Latin." This publication, issued December, 1877, appeared only a few months later than the "Parallel Rules of Greek and Latin Syntax," of the second part of which this pamphlet is a revised and greatly changed edition. Valuable aid has also been derived from Mr. ARTHUR SIDGWICK'S "Introduction to Greek Prose Composition," and the various Latin and Greek Grammars have been freely drawn upon.

Suggestions from teachers who may use the pamphlet will be most welcome.

ROBERT P. KEEP.

WILLISTON SEMINARY,
June 14, 1879.

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In revising this pamphlet for a second edition, some verbal changes have been made with a view to greater clearness of expression, and a number of new examples has been inserted, so that, wherever possible, identical examples may illustrate corresponding idioms in the two languages.

The Editor thankfully acknowledges valuable suggestions from Professors W. S. Tyler and J. R. Smith, and from Messrs. W. C. Collar, W. C. Lawton, and E. G. Coy.

R. P. K.

Easthampton, Mass.,
Nov. 2, 1880.

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CLASSIFICATION

A.
INDEPENDENT SENTENCES: these of three kinds. . . . . .

B.
DEPENDENT SENTENCES: these of three kinds.

- SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES, *i. e.* those which stand as the subject or object of some verb, are of three kinds:
- ADJECTIVE CLAUSES.
- ADVERBIAL CLAUSES, *i. e.* those which modify the principal verb like an adverb, are of six kinds:

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F SENTENCES.

I. STATEMENT. (Declarative Sentence.)	1. Positive Assertion. 2. Qualified Assertion.
II. QUESTION. (Interrogative Sentence.)	1. Question. (Single or Double.) 2. Deliberative or Dubitative Question.
III. COMMAND. (Imperative Sentence.)	1. Command. 2. Exhortation. 3. Wish.

I. INDIRECT STATEMENT.
II. INDIRECT QUESTION.
III. INDIRECT REQUEST.

These are all varieties of Ind. Discourse, or *Oratio Obliqua.*

RELATIVE CLAUSES.

I. FINAL.
II. CONSECUTIVE.
III. CAUSAL.
IV. CONDITIONAL.
V. CONCESSIVE.
VI. TEMPORAL.

Very frequently in Greek, and less commonly in Latin, a participle may be the equivalent of a relative clause, or of an adverbial clause in each of its varieties.

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SYNTAX O

A. — USES OF MOODS I

LATIN.

Direct Statement. 1.

1. Direct statement is made by the indicative.

Homo vēnit.

The man came.

Potential Subjunctive.

2. Qualified or modest assertion is made by the prese or perfect subjunctive.

Velim, voluerim.

I would like.

Veniat, vēnerit.

He may come, he may have come.

NOTE. — The imperfect subjunctive, in this use, implies wh cannot be.

vellem, cf. *ἠβουλόμην ἄν*.

I could wish.

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HE MOODS.

NDEPENDENT SENTENCES.

GREEK.

Direct atement. 1.

1. Direct statement is made by the indicative.

ὁ ἀνὴρ ἦλθεν.

REM. — Emphatic denial is made by the (aor.) subjunctive, or by the future indicative preceded by **οὐ μή**.

οὐ μὴ παύσωμαι.
I will never cease.

Potential Optative.

2. Qualified or modest assertion is made by the optative with ἄν (neg. οὐ).

βουλοίμην ἄν.

ἔλθοι ἄν.

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Direct Question. 2.

1. Questions (single or double) are introduced by interrogative pronouns and adverbs, or, rarely, are indicated by the mark of interrogation (?), and employ the indicative

Quid vīs?

What do you want?

Ubīnam habitas?

Where do you dwell?

REM. — **Ne** (enclitic), appended to the emphatic word, asks for information; **nonne** expects the answer *yes;* **num** expects the answer *no.*

Doubtful Question.

2. In questions implying doubt as to the possibility or propriety of an action (dubitative or deliberative questions), the subjunctive is used (in all tenses).

Quid faciam?

What am I to do?

Quid de eo homine dīcam?

What am I to say concerning this man?

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rect stion. 2.

1. Questions (single or double) are introduced by interrogative pronouns and adverbs, or are indicated by the mark of interrogation (;), and employ the indicative.

τί θέλεις ;

ποῦ οἰκεῖς ;

ἦλθες ;

Did you come?

REM. — Common interrogative particles are: **ἆρα** and **ἦ**, these ask for information; **ἆρα οὐ, οὐ, οὔκουν, ἄλλο τι (ἤ), πῶς οὐ,** expect the answer *yes;* **ἆρα μή, μή,** in a question, expect the answer *no.*

Doubtful Question.

2. In questions implying doubt as to the possibility or propriety of an action (dubitative or deliberative questions), the first, sometimes the third, person of the subjunctive is used (neg. *μή*).

τί ποιήσω ;

τί εἴπω περὶ ἐκείνου τοῦ ἀνδρός ;

NOTE. — The subjunctive of doubt is frequently joined with **βούλει, θέλεις, κ. τ. λ.**

βούλει
βούλεσθε
θέλεις
θέλετε } *ἀπίωμεν ;*

Do you wish we should go away?

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Direct Command. 3.

1. Command is expressed by the imperative mood.

Curre, currite.
Run.

Fac hoc.
Do this.

NOTE. — The second and third persons of the present subjunc are frequently used to express command.

REM. — Prohibition, or negative command, is expressed in th ways: —

(*a*) by **ne** with perfect subjunctive.
Ne hoc fēceris.
Do not do this.

(*b*) by **noli** or **nolite** with infinitive.
Noli (nolite) hoc facere.

(*c*) by **cave ne** or **cavete ne** with present subjunctive.
Cave ne hoc facias.

NOTE. — We cannot say **ne fac** or **ne facias.**

Exhortation.

2. Exhortation is expressed by the first plural of th subjunctive (neg. **ne**).

Eamus.
Let us go.

Wish.

3. Wish, if attainable, is expressed by the prima tenses of the subjunctive: if not attainable, by the se ondary tenses of the subjunctive (neg. **ne**).

His Di gratiam referant!
These may the Gods requite!

Utinam tum tibi adfuissem!
Would that I had then been present.

Utinam Cyrus vīveret!
Would that Cyrus were alive!

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ect
nand.
3.

1. Command is expressed by the imperative mood: by the present imperative, if the command is general; by the aorist imperative, if it is particular.

σπούδαζε.
Be diligent (always).

ποίησον τοῦτο.
Do this (particular thing).

REM. — Prohibition, or negative command, is expressed by μή with the present imperative, if the prohibition is general: by μή with the second (rarely third) singular or plural aorist subjunctive, if the prohibition is particular.

μὴ κλέπτε.
Do not steal (habitually), or, Do not go on stealing.

μὴ κλέψῃς.
Do not steal (in this particular instance).

ortation.

2. Exhortation is expressed by the first plural of the subjunctive (neg. *μή*).

ἴωμεν.

Wish.

3. Wish, conceived as attainable, is expressed by the optative (neg. *μή*): as unattainable, by the past tenses of the indicative with *εἴθε* or *εἰ γάρ*, or by the aorist *ὤφελον* with an infinitive.

Τούτους μὲν οἱ θεοὶ ἀποτίσαιντο.
Εἴθε σοι τότε συνεγενόμην.
Ὤφελε Κῦρος ζῆν (Debuit Cyrus vivere!).

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B. — USES OF MOODS

LATIN.

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GREEK.

Classification of Tenses. 4.

Tenses are classed as Primary and Secondary. Primary: present, perfect, future, and future perfect. Secondary: imperfect, aorist, and pluperfect.

In Greek, the sequence is rather of mood than of tense, *i. e.* the *mood* of the dependent clause is often influenced by the tense of the principal verb. This principle holds good only in certain cases hereafter described, especially in final clauses (**14**), and may be thus stated.

Sequence of Moods. 5.

The subjunctive is the regular attendant of primary tenses; the optative (hence called also historical subjunctive), of secondary.

δ[illegible] ἐκεῖνο τὸ βιβλίον ἵνα λάβω.
[illegible]εῖνο τὸ βιβλίον ἵνα λάβοιμι.

[illegible]lauses [illegible]he subject or the object of
[illegible]are cl[illegible] [illegible]ows:

[illegible]ect St[illegible] All forms of
[illegible]rect [illegible] direct Discourse,
[illegible]irect[illegible] or
Oratio Obliqua.

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Oratio Obliqua.

REM. 1. — The term Indirect Discourse, *Oratio Obliqua*, is appli to what is reported, but not formally quoted, as the saying or as thought of a person. It is what in direct discourse would be in form of a declaration, or a question, or a command or request; bu indirect discourse takes the form of a subordinate clause.

REM. 2. — Substantive clauses have been defined as clauses wh (like a substantive) are the subject or object of certain verbs. Th are, properly, object-clauses when the leading verb is in the active voic yet they may follow certain verbs and expressions which are not stric transitive, *i.e.* which do not take after them a noun in the object case.

REM. 3. — When the leading verb is in the passive voice, the su stantive clause will regularly become its subject.

Indirect Statement: how expressed.
7.

1. The regular form of the indirect statement, after ver of *feeling*, *thinking*, and *declaring*, is the accusative with th infinitive.

Dixit Xenophontem imperatorem esse.

He said that Xenophon was general.

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ratio liqua.

REM. 1. — The term Indirect Discourse, *Oratio Obliqua*, is applied to what is reported, but not formally quoted, as the saying or as the thought of a person. It is what in direct discourse would be in the form of a declaration, or a question, or a command or request; but in indirect discourse takes the form of a subordinate clause

REM. 2. — Substantive clauses have been defined as clauses which (like a substantive) are the subject or object of certain verbs. They are, properly, object-clauses when the leading verb is in the active voice; yet they may follow certain verbs and expressions which are not strictly transitive, *i.e.* which do not take after them a noun in the objective case.

REM. 3. — When the leading verb is in the passive voice, the substantive clause will regularly become its subject.

Indirect tatement: how xpressed. 7.

1. A regular form of the indirect statement, after verbs of *feeling*, *thinking*, and *declaring*, is the accusative with the infinitive; but the nominative usually takes the place of the accusative when it would repeat the subject of the principal verb.

Ἔφη Ξενοφῶντα στρατηγὸν εἶναι.

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Indirect Statement: how expressed.

REM. — Verbs of *hoping*, *promising*, and *undertaking* take future infinitive with the subject-accusative.

Promisit se venturum esse.
He promised that he would come.

2. After impersonal verbs such as *it happens*, *it expedient*, *it remains*, *it follows* (*e. g.* **accidit, fieri sol expedit, restat, sequitur,** &c.), — the substantive clau takes the form of **ut** with the subjunctive.

Accidit ut Romae essem.
It happened that I was at Rome.

REM. — Clauses after the above-named verbs are sometimes call substantive clauses of result (cf. Rule **15,** 1).

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rect
nent:
w
ssed.

NOTE. — By the use of the nominative or accusative, the Greek regularly indicates whether the subject of the infinitive is the same as that of the principal verb, or not.

Ἔφη αὐτός, οὐκ ἐκεῖνον, στρατηγεῖν.

He said that he himself, not that one, was commander.

REM. — Verbs of *promising* usually take the future infinitive; verbs of *hoping*, frequently the aorist infinitive with **ἄν**.

ὑπέσχετό μοι τοῦτο ποιήσειν.

ἐλπίζω σε ταῦτα ποιῆσαι ἄν.

2. Equally common in Greek with the accusative with infinitive after verbs of *saying*, *thinking*, &c., is the substantive clause introduced by **ὅτι** or **ὡς**. The verb of the substantive clause takes the indicative after a primary tense; the optative (generally) after a secondary tense.

οἶδα ὅτι βασιλεὺς ἀπέθανεν.

I know that the king died.

ᾔδειν ὅτι βασιλεὺς μαχόμενος ἀποθάνοι (ἀπέθανεν).

I knew that the king died fighting.

REM. 1. — The indicative may at any time be employed after a secondary tense when it is desired, for the sake of vividness, to approach the original language of the speaker.

REM. 2. — Of the three common verbs of *saying*, **φημί** regularly takes the infinitive; **λέγω** may take **ὅτι** or **ὡς**; **εἶπον** always takes **ὅτι** or **ὡς**, except when it signifies *bid*.

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3. After verbs of emotion, **gaudeo, doleo,** &c., substantive clause may be the accusative with the i tive, but very often takes the form of **quod** with indicative.

Gaudeo quod domum tutus abiit.

I am glad that he has returned home safe.

Employment of Mood in Indirect Statement. (Subordinate Clauses.) **8.**

General Principle governing the Employment of Moo
Clauses of Secondary Dependence in Indirect Discours

Clauses that are dependent on a proposition in Indi Discourse employ the subjunctive.

REM. — The dependent clauses, the verbs of which thus pass the subjunctive, may be of the following varieties: —

1. Interrogative clauses (cf. Rule **9**), — yet rhetorical quest may employ the infinitive.

2. Imperative clauses.

3. Relative clauses, whether introduced by relatives or rela adverbs.

4. Adverbial clauses in their different varieties (cf. Rule **13**

DIRECT STATEMENT.	INDIRECT STATEMENT.
Ego paratus sum: — quid *vultis?* Ne *dubitate* aperte dicere ea quae in animo *habetis.*	[Dixit] se paratum esse: quid *vellent* (1)? ne *du rent* (2) aperte dicere ea qua animo *haberent* (3).

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3. Verbs of *feeling, knowing, judging,* — e. g. αἰσθάνομαι, οἶδα, μέμνημαι, — are more commonly followed by a participle than by the accusative with the infinitive. This participle is called a supplementary participle.

οἶδά σε κακὸν ὄντα.
I know that you are cowardly.

οἶδα κακὸς ὤν.
I know that I am cowardly.

REM. — With the infinitive the meaning is different.

οἶδα κακὸς εἶναι.
I know how to be a coward.

Employment of Mood in Indirect Statement (after ὅτι or ὡς).

General Principle governing the Employment of Mood in Indirect Statement after ὅτι *or* ὡς.

8. When the tense of the principal verb (*verbum sentiendi vel declarandi*) is secondary, the mood of all the finite verbs in the clauses immediately or remotely depending upon it is usually changed (in passing from direct to indirect statement) to the optative.

Direct Statement.

ἐὰν ὑμᾶς ἴδω ἀθύμους, κακὸς ἔσομαι.
If I see you faint-hearted, I shall be cowardly.

Indirect Statement.

ἔλεξεν ὅτι, εἰ ἡμᾶς ἴδοι ἀθύμους, κακὸς ἔσοιτο.
He said that, if he should see us faint-hearted, he should be cowardly.

REM. 1. — The tense of the verb of the dependent clauses suffers no change.

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3. After verbs of emotion, **gaudeo, doleo,** &c., substantive clause may be the accusative with the i tive, but very often takes the form of **quod** with indicative.

Gaudeo quod domum tutus abiit.

I am glad that he has returned home safe.

Employment of Mood in Indirect Statement. (Subordinate Clauses.) **8.**

General Principle governing the Employme Mood Clauses of Secondary Dependence in Indi scours

Clauses that are dependent on a pr n Indi Discourse employ the subjunctive.

REM. — The dependent clauses, the thus pass the subjunctive, may be of the follow

rela

ties (cf. Rule 13

RECT STATEMENT.

] se paratum esse: *vellent* (1)? ne *d* aperte dicere ea q *haberent* (3).

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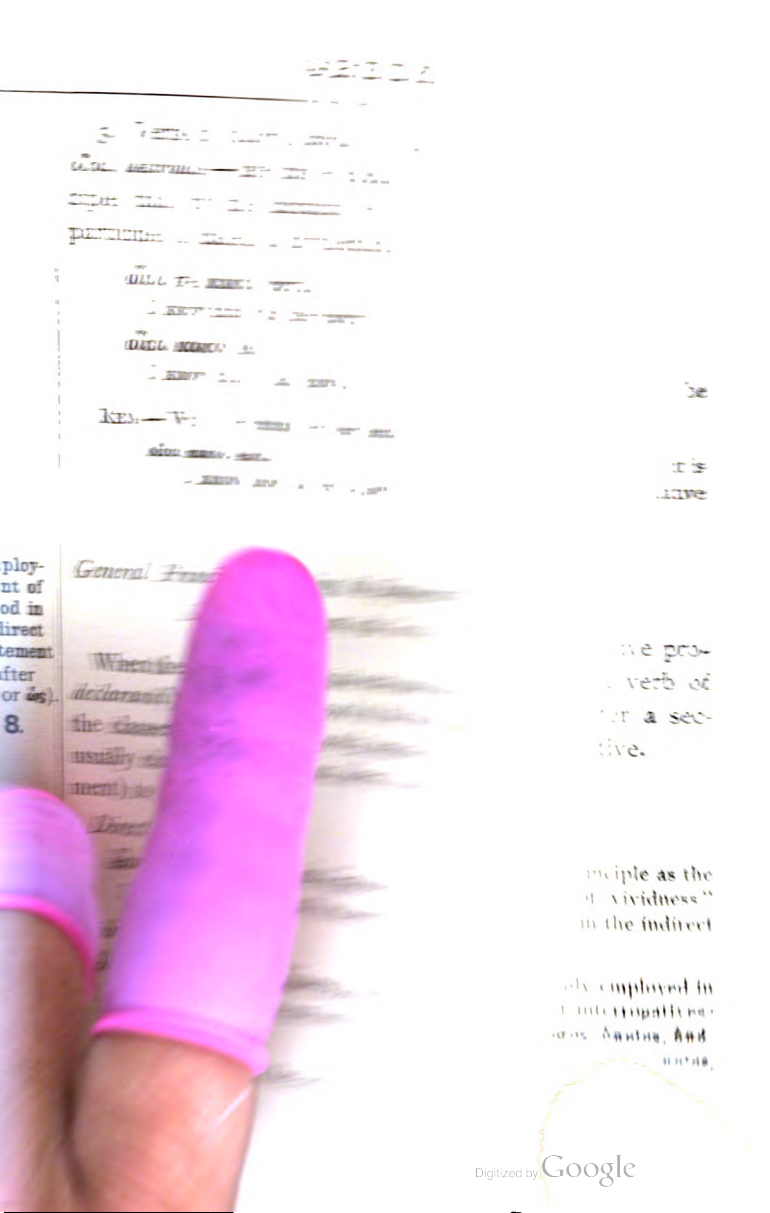

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DIRECT STATEMENT.	INDIRECT STATEMENT.
Si pacem populus Romanus cum Helvetiis *faciet*, in eam partem *ibunt* atque ibi *erunt* Helvetii, ubi eos Caesar *constituerit* atque esse *voluerit:* sin bello persequi *perseverabit, reminiscere* (inquit) et veteris incommodi populi Romani et pristinae virtutis Helvetiorum.	Si pacem populus Roma cum Helvetiis *faceret* (4) in e partem *ituros* atque ibi *futu* Helvetios, ubi eos Caesar *con tuisset* (3) atque esse *voluisset* (sin bello persequi *perseveraret reminisceretur* (2) et veteris commodi populi Romani et p stinae virtutis Helvetiorum.

NOTE. — The subjunctive of direct statement, modified in te according to Rule **5**, is retained in indirect statement except in apodosis of conditional sentences, where it becomes future infiniti

Mood in Indirect Question. 9.

Indirect questions are introduced by interrogative pr nouns and particles. The verb of the interrogative claus is regularly in the subjunctive.

Quaeret quis sit.
Quaesivit quis esset.

REM. 1. — The subjunctive is explained on the same principle a the subjunctive of indirect statement.

REM. 2. — Any dependent sentence, though not strictly interroga tive, if introduced by an interrogative word, may take the subjunctive.

Quam sis audax, omnes intelligunt.
All know how bold you are.

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EXC. — The uniform exception to the above rule is in the case of conditional sentences of the second form, contrary to reality (cf. Rule **20**), where the indicatives never change to optatives.

Direct Statement.

Εἰ μὴ ὑμεῖς ἤλθετε, ἐπορευόμεθα ἄν.

If you had not come, we should be marching.

Indirect Statement.

Ἀπήγγειλεν ὅτι εἰ μὴ ὑμεῖς ἤλθετε, ἐπορευόμεθα ἄν.

He announced that, if you had not come, we should be marching.

REM. 2. — By what may be called the "principle of vividness," it is common, in Greek, to employ, where we should expect the optative of indirect statement, the original language of the speaker.

ἠπόρουν τί λέγει (instead of λέγοι).

I was at a loss to know what he meant.

Mood in Indirect Question. 9.

Indirect questions are introduced by interrogative pronouns and particles. After a primary tense, the verb of the interrogative clause suffers no change; after a secondary tense, it passes regularly into the optative.

Ἐρωτήσει ὅστις ἐστιν.
Ἤρετο ὅστις εἴη.

REM. 1. — The optative is explained on the same principle as the optative of indirect statement. By the "principle of vividness" the original language of the speaker may be employed in the indirect question, after a secondary tense.

REM. 2. — The indirect interrogatives are commonly employed in Greek, in the indirect question, instead of the direct interrogatives: e. g. **ὅπου, ὁπόθεν, ὅποι, ὅπη, ὁπότε, ὅπως, ὅστις, ὁπόσος, ὁποῖος, ὁπότερος,** instead of **ποῦ, πόθεν, ποῖ, πῇ, πότε, πῶς, τίς, πόσος, ποῖος, πότερος.**

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Mood in Indirect Request. 10

1. Indirect request, after verbs of requesting, advising and reminding, is regularly expressed by the subjunctive (object-clause) with **ut** or **ne.**

Te rogat ut hoc facias.

Te rogavit ut hoc faceres.

He asks (asked) you to do this.

Suadeo (vobis) ut vosmet servetis.

I advise you to save yourselves.

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REM. 3. — The subjunctive is *not* an attendant of the indirect question, in Greek: where we find it, it is the deliberative or dubitative subjunctive. *E. g.*, —

Οὐκ οἶδα πῶς ἀποδρῶ.

I don't know how I am to escape.

The direct question was, —

πῶς ἀποδρῶ;

How am I to escape?

which, after a secondary tense, by the principle of indirect discourse, would pass into the optative, —

οὐκ ἤδειν πῶς ἀποδραίην,

or, by the "principle of vividness," might remain unchanged:

οὐκ ἤδειν πῶς ἀποδρῶ.

I did not know how I should escape.

Mood in Indirect Request. 10.

1. Indirect request, after verbs of requesting, advising, and reminding, is regularly expressed, as in English, by the infinitive.

σοῦ δεῖται ταῦτα ποιεῖν.

σοῦ ἐδεήθη ταῦτα ποιεῖν.

συμβουλεύω ὑμῖν σώζεσθαι.

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Mood in Indirect Request.

REM. 1. — **Jubeo, veto, cogo, sino,** and sometimes **volo,** are lowed by the infinitive.

REM. 2. — The clauses above described (Rule **10,** 1) are someti called substantive clauses of purpose, and treated of under the head final clauses (cf. Rule **14,** 1).

2. After verbs of fear or caution, the object of app hension is expressed by **ne** with the subjunctive, when is feared something will happen; by **ut** or **ne non,** wh it is feared that something will not happen.

Vereor ne hoc facias (direct form, **ne hoc feceris**

I fear that (or lest) you will do this.

Verebar ut (ne non) hoc faceres (direct form, **f hoc**).

I was fearing that (or lest) you should not do this.

REM. — It is impossible to draw a line which separates indir requests from final clauses. Many grammarians prefer to class claus with **ut** or **ne** after verbs of fear or caution under the general head final clauses (Rule **14**).

Adjective Clauses. 11.

An adjective clause is one which, like an adjective qualifies a noun. Relative clauses are adjective clauses because the relative clause, like an adjective, qualifies the antecedent. But since relative clauses, in Latin, usually convey a purpose, result, cause, condition, or concession they may modify the *verb* of the principal sentence, and hence may employ the moods in the same way as adverbial clauses.

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Mood in Indirect Request.

REM. 1. — Instead of the infinitive, the Greek employs ὅπως, with future indicative, after verbs denoting attention, care, effort.

REM. 2. — In the later Greek (*e. g.* of the New Testament), the clause with ἵνα and the subjunctive frequently takes the place of the the infinitive. In both cases, it may be that we see the influence of the Latin.

2. After verbs of fear or caution, the object of apprehension is expressed by a clause with μή, when it is feared something will happen; with μὴ οὐ, when it is feared something will not happen. After a primary tense, we have the subjunctive; after a secondary tense, the optative (historical subjunctive).

φοβοῦμαι μὴ ταῦτα ποιήσῃς (direct form, μὴ ποίησον ταῦτα).

ἐφοβούμην μὴ οὐ ταῦτα ποιήσειας (direct form, ποίησον ταῦτα).

REM. — It is impossible to draw a line which separates indirect requests from final clauses. Many grammarians prefer to class clauses with **ut** or **ne** after verbs of fear or caution under the general head of final clauses (Rule **14**).

Adjective Clauses. **11.**

An adjective clause is one which, like an adjective, qualifies a noun. Relative clauses are adjective clauses, because the relative clause, like an adjective, qualifies the antecedent.

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Mood in Relative Clauses.
12.

1. A relative clause, when simply adjective, takes verb in the indicative.

Vir quem omnes diligunt.

A man whom all love (= a man loved by all).

2. Relative clauses more usually express purpose, res cause, concession; and, in all these cases, require the s junctive.

Legationem mittere quae (ut ea) pacem rog

To send an embassy to ask peace (purpose).

Quis tam stultus est qui (ut is) ignoret?

Who is so simple as not to know (result)?

Clearchum ad colloquium vocavit qui (cu is) maxime Graecorum honorari videretu

He summoned Clearchus to the council, since he seemed be the most honored of the Greeks (cause).

Adverbial Clauses.
13.

Adverbial clauses, or those which modify verbs, a divided into six classes.

I. Final.
II. Consecutive.
III. Causal.
IV. Conditional.
V. Concessive.
VI. Temporal.

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od in ative uses. 12.

1. Relative clauses regularly require the indicative.

ἀνὴρ ὃν πάντες φιλοῦσιν.

2. Relative clauses, not infrequently, as in Latin, express purpose, result, or cause; but even in such cases require the indicative.

πρεσβείαν πέμπειν ἥτις (or *ἥ*) *ζητήσει εἰρήνην.*

(Cf. **14**, 2, (3)).

Τίς οὕτως εὐήθης ὅστις (or rarely *ὃς*) *ἀγνοεῖ;*

Κλέαρχον σύμβουλον παρεκάλεσε ὅς γε ἐδόκει προτιμηθῆναι μάλιστα τῶν Ἑλλήνων.

dverbial Clauses. 13.

Adverbial clauses, or those which modify verbs, are divided into six classes.

I. Final.
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Final Clauses. 14.

1. Final clauses are such as denote purpose, — f "end," *to the end that.* They are introduced by **ut quo** (with comparatives), **quominus** (after words phrases implying hindrance), and by relative words: require, in all cases, the subjunctive.

Pontem rumpit ne transeatis.
He breaks down the bridge that you may not cross

Pontem rupit ne transiretis.
He broke down the bridge that you might not cros

NOTE. — The relative or relative adverb, when denoting pur may be resolved into **ut** or **ne** with a personal pronoun or a de strative word.

2. Various ways of expressing purpose: —

(1.) **ut, ne, quo, quominus,** with subjunctive.
(2.) Future participle active.
(3.) Relative clause with subjunctive.
(4.) Genitive case of gerund, or gerundive, wi **causâ.**
(5.) Accusative case of gerund, or gerundive, wi **ad.**
(6.) Supine in **um** after verb of motion.

REM. — The infinitive never expresses purpose in prose Lat though often so used in the poets.

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Final clauses. **14.**

1. Final clauses are introduced by *ἵνα, ὅπως, ὡς* (neg. *ἵνα μή, ὅπως μή, ὡς μή*): they require the subjunctive after a primary, the optative (historical subjunctive) after a secondary tense.

λύει τὴν γέφυραν ὡς μὴ διαβῆτε.

ἔλυσε τὴν γέφυραν ὡς μὴ διαβαίητε.

REM. — By the principle of vividness (cf. Rule **8**, Rem. 2) the subjunctive may be employed after secondary tenses.

κατέκαυσε τὰ πλοῖα ἵνα μὴ διαβῇ.

He burned the boats, that he may (might) not cross.

2. Various ways of expressing purpose: —

(1.) *ἵνα, ὡς, ὅπως*, with subjunctive or optative.

(2.) Future participle, often with *ὡς*.

(3.) Relative clause, with future indicative.

(4.) Genitive case of infinitive, with neuter article *τοῦ*.

(5.) *ὅπως*, with future indicative after verbs of effort (cf. Rule **10**, 1, Rem. 1.).

(6.) The infinitive alone or with *ὥστε*.

REM. — All final clauses, when negative, require **μή**.

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EXAMPLES.

Final Clauses.

1. Cf. examples under Rule **14**, 1.

2. **Urbem capturus contendit** (not in Cicero).

3. **Legationem mittere quae dicat** (or **dictura**

4. **Cibum cepit vivendi causā.**

5. **Ibant ad pacem petendam**
petendum (rare).

6. **Ibant pacem petitum.**

Consecutive Clauses. 15.

1. Consecutive clauses are such as denote result. T
are introduced by **ut** (neg. **ut non**) and **quin** (after n
tive and interrogative expressions), and require the
junctive.

Res tam horribilis erat, ut nemo dormiret.

The affair was so horrible that no one slept.

Nemo } **est quin putet.**
Quis }

There is no one }
Who is there } but thinks.

2. The relative clause denoting result (**qui = ut** e
ut tu, ut is, &c.) is especially common in Latin.
this we have the following rule: —

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'inal
auses.

EXAMPLES.

1. Cf. examples under Rule **14**, 1.

2. *ἦλθε αἱρήσων τὴν πόλιν.*
He went to take the city.

3. *πρεσβείαν πέμπειν ἥτις ἐρεῖ.*
To send an embassy to speak.

4. *ἔφαγε τοῦ μὴ λίμου ἀποθανεῖν.*
He ate in order not to die of hunger.

5. *φρόντιζ' ὅπως πράξεις.*
Consider how you may do it.

6. *τὴν πόλιν φυλάττειν αὐτοῖς παρέδοσαν.*
We handed over to them the city to guard it.

isecutive
lauses.
15.

1. Consecutive clauses are such as denote result. They are commonly introduced by *ὥστε*, and generally require the infinitive (neg. *μή*).

τὸ πρᾶγμα ἦν οὕτω δεινὸν ὥστε μηδένα κοιμηθῆναι.
The affair was so horrible that one could not sleep.

2. If it is desired to indicate that the result has actually followed (*i.e.* if the fact as a *fact*, rather than as a *result*, is to be emphasized), the indicative is used.

τὸ πρᾶγμα οὕτω δεινὸν ἦν, ὥστε ὁ βασιλεὺς οὐκ (not *μή*) *ἐκοιμήθη.*

The affair was so horrible that the king did not sleep.

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A relative clause expressing some characteristic of antecedent requires the subjunctive.

Sunt qui (= tales ut ii) putent.
There are some who think.

Causal Clauses. 16.

Causal clauses express a cause or reason, and are introduced by **quod, quia; cum, quoniam.** The first of these conjunctions are regularly joined with the indicative; the last two, with the subjunctive. But any causal conjunction may take the subjunctive, when the reason is stated, not as a fact, but simply on another's (or subjectively on one's own) authority.

Quia mihi dicto audientes esse nonvultis, vobiscum sequar.

Cyrum insimulavit quod contra fratrem conjuraret.
He accused Cyrus (falsely) because (as he said) he was plotting against his brother.

NOTE. — In a case like this last example, **quod . . . conjuraret** is not only the cause, but also the subject-matter of the charge, and the subjunctive could be explained on the principle stated in Rule 15 for Latin and Greek.

REM. — Causal clauses introduced by the relative are common in Latin, and require the subjunctive (**qui = cum ego, cum tu, cum ille,** &c.).

O vis veritatis quae (cum ea) se defendat!
O the power of truth to defend (since it defends) itself!

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ıusal
auses.
16.

Causal clauses express a cause or reason, and are introduced by ὅτι, ὡς, *because, on the ground that;* ἐπεί, ἐπειδή, ὅτε, ὁπότε, *since;* and by other conjunctions of similar meaning.

They are regularly joined with the indicative; but when the cause is assigned on another's authority, the optative may be used after a secondary tense.

ἐπεὶ ἐμοὶ οὐ θέλετε πείσεσθαι, ἐγὼ σὺν ὑμῖν ἕψομαι.

Since you do not choose to obey me, I will follow you.

Κῦρον διέβαλλεν ὡς τῷ ἀδελφῷ ἐπιβουλεύοι.

He accused Cyrus, on the ground that he was plotting against his brother.

NOTE. — In a case like this last example, **ὡς . . . ἐπιβουλεύοι** is not only the alleged cause, but also the subject-matter of the charge, and the optative is accounted for by Rule **8**.

REM. — Two other common ways of expressing a cause are: —

1. By a participle (cf. Rule **31**).

λέγω τούτου ἕνεκα, βουλόμενος, κ. τ. λ.

This is the reason why I speak, because I wish, &c.

2. By **διά** with the infinitive preceded by the neuter article **τό**.

διὰ τὸ ἀγαθὸς εἶναι, τοῦτο ἐποίει.

He used to do this, because he was brave.

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Of Conditional Sentences. 17.

A conditional sentence consists of two parts: the ditional clause or *if*-clause, called the Protasis; and main clause or *then*-clause, called the Apodosis.

The conditional clause is introduced by the con tions **si, nisi,** or **si non.**

(Cf. Note on opposite page.)

Classification under Four Forms. 18.

Conditional Sentences appear in four forms, the na of which is indicated by the following names: **Sump Dati, Sumptio Falsi, Sumptio Dandi, Sump Ficti.**

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Of Conditional Sentences. 17.

A conditional sentence consists of two parts: the conditional clause or *if*-clause, called the Protasis; and the main clause or *then*-clause, called the Apodosis.

The conditional clause is introduced either by εἰ or ἐάν (= εἰ ἄν) also written ἤν, ἄν. εἰ may be joined with the indicative or optative; ἐάν is found only with the subjunctive. The negative of the Protasis is always μή, — that of the Apodosis, always οὐ.

NOTE. — The word Protasis (Greek **Πρόταστς**, from **προτείνω**, *to stretch forth* or *put forward*) means *clause which precedes and prepares the way for what follows.* Apodosis (Greek **Ἀπόδοσις**, from **ἀποδίδωμι**, *to correspond*) means *following clause which concludes and completes the sentence.*

Sometimes, though not often, the word *then* is expressed in the Apodosis. *E.g.*, —

If you say this, *then* I answer.

Wenn du so sagst, *so* antworte ich.

ἕως ὁ ταῦθ' ὥρμαινε, ἦλθε δ' Ἀθήνη.

While he was thus debating, then came Athene.

— *Iliad*, A 194.

It is very important to notice, that although the Protasis comes first, and calls forth the Apodosis, as a question calls forth an answer, yet that the Apodosis is always the main clause.

Classification under Four Forms. 18.

Conditional Sentences appear in four forms, the nature of which is indicated by the following names: **Sumptio Dati, Sumptio Falsi, Sumptio Dandi, Sumptio Ficti.**

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First form: Condition assumed as True.
19.

I. **Sumptio Dati.** Truth of supposition taken granted.

Indicative (any tense) in the Protasis;
Indicative (any tense) in the Apodosis.

Si adest, bene est.
If he is present, it is well.

Si arae sunt, Di quoque sunt.
If there are altars, there are also Gods.

Si quid peccas, doles.
If you commit any sin, you (are sure to) suffer for it.

Si tonuit, fulguravit quoque.
If it thundered, it also lightened.

REM. 1. — Observe that in conditions of the first class, the c ditional *form* is often rather accidental than essential. The thou would be equally well expressed in case another conjunction — *because, since, as sure as* — were substituted for *if*. The possibi of such a substitution will be found the best practical test by wh conditions of the first form may be recognized. *E. g.*,—

Si arae sunt, Di quoque sunt
really means, —
Since there are altars, there are also Gods.

Si tonuit, fulguravit quoque,
So sure as it has thundered, lightning has preceded.

REM. 2. — A conditional sentence of the first form is general convertible into a general proposition.

Si arae sunt, Di quoque sunt
may be translated, —
Wherever there are altars, there are also Gods.

Si tonuit, fulguravit quoque,
Lightning always attends thunder.

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t form: idition med as True. 19.

I. **Sumptio Dati.** Truth of supposition taken for granted.

Indicative (any tense) in the Protasis;
Indicative (any tense) in the Apodosis.

Εἰ πάρεστι, καλῶς ἔχει.

Εἰ βωμοί εἰσιν, καὶ Θεοί εἰσιν.

Εἴ τι ἁμαρτάνεις, ἀλγεῖς.

Εἰ ἐβρόντησε, καὶ ἤστραψεν.

REM. 1. — Observe that in conditions of the first class (which are probably more common in Greek than in Latin) the conditional *form* is often rather accidental than otherwise. The thought would equally well be expressed by the substitution for *if* of some other conjunction; e. g. *because, since, as sure as.* The possibility of such a substitution will be found a convenient practical test, by which conditions of the first form may be recognized. *E. g.*,—

Εἰ βωμοί εἰσιν, καὶ Θεοί εἰσιν

really means, —

Since (or where) there are altars, there are also Gods.

Εἰ ἐβρόντησε, καὶ ἤστραψεν,

So sure as it has thundered, lightning has preceded.

REM. 2. — A conditional sentence of the first form is generally convertible into a general proposition.

Εἰ βωμοί εἰσιν, καὶ Θεοί εἰσιν.

Wherever there are altars, there are also Gods.

Εἰ ἐβρόντησε, καὶ ἤστραψεν.

Lightning always attends thunder.

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Second Form: Condition contrary to Fact. 20.

II. **Sumptio Falsi.** Supposition contrary to rea

Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in Protasis ;

Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in Apodosis.

Si adesset, bene esset.

If he were present, it were well.

Si quid peccares, doleres.

If you were committing any sin, you would suffer (for it)

Si tonuisset, fulgurasset.

If it had thundered, it would have lightened.

REM. 1.—When the imperfect is used in both clauses (or in ei clause), the contrary reality would be expressed by the present: **si adesset** (contrary reality, **non adest**); **bene esset** (contr reality, **non bene est**). When the pluperfect is used in both cla (or in either clause), the contrary reality would be expressed by historical perfect, or by the imperfect: *e. g.* **si potuisset** (contr reality, **non poterat**, or **non potuit**); **venisset** (contrary rea **non vēnit**).

REM. 2. — The indicative, instead of the subjunctive, in Apodosis, signifies that a thing was certain, or was intended, ought to be.

In amplexūs filiae ruebat, nisi lictores obstitissent.

He would certainly have rushed into his daughter's e brace, had not the lictors prevented.

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Fact.
20.

II. **Sumptio Falsi.** Supposition contrary to reality.

Past tense of the Indicative in Protasis;

Past tense of the Indicative with ἄν in Apodosis.

Εἰ παρῆν, καλῶς ἂν εἶχεν.

Εἴ τι ἡμάρτανες, ἤλγεις ἄν.

Εἰ ἐβρόντησεν, ἤστραψεν ἄν.

Rem. 1.—When the imperfect is used in both clauses (or in either clause), the contrary reality would be expressed by the present: *e.g.* **εἰ παρῆν** (contrary reality, **οὐ πάρεστι**); **καλῶς ἂν εἶχεν** (contrary reality, **οὐκ ἔχει καλῶς**). When the aorist is used in both clauses (or in either clause), the contrary reality would be expressed by the aorist or by the imperfect: *e.g.* **Εἰ ἠδυνήθη** (contrary reality, **οὐκ ἠδυνήθη** or **οὐκ ἠδύνατο**); **ἦλθεν ἄν** (contrary reality, **οὐκ ἦλθεν**).

Rem. 2. — **ἄν** is sometimes omitted in the Apodosis of a conditional sentence of the second form, especially with impersonal verbs denoting *obligation*, *propriety*, &c.; *e.g.* **ἔδει, ἐχρῆν, χρῆν**, &c.

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Third Form: Condition Probable. 21.

III. **Sumptio Dandi.** Truth of supposition will granted. Supposition referring to the future, with pres expectation that it will be realized.

Future Indicative (or, for completed action, Fut Perfect Indicative) in Protasis;

Future Indicative in Apodosis.

Si aderit, bene erit.

If he be (shall be) present, it will be well.

Si quid peccaveris, dolebis.

If you shall have committed any sin, you shall suffer (for

REM. — This variety of condition, it will be observed, shows same use of the moods (indicative in both clauses) as the first fo from which it is here distinguished only for the sake of symme (for comparison with the Greek).

Fourth Form: Condition Imaginary. 22.

IV. **Sumptio Ficti.** Of that which is imagina Supposition referring to the future, but without prese probability.

Present subjunctive (perfect subjunctive for complete action) in Protasis;

Present subjunctive in Apodosis.

Si adsit, bene sit.

If he was present, it would be well.

Si quid pecces, peccaveris, } doleas.

If you committed any fault, you would suffer (for it).

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Third Form: Condition Probable. 21.

III. **Sumptio Dandi.** Truth of supposition will be granted. Supposition referring to the future, with present expectation that it will be realized.

Subjunctive with ἐάν (ἤν, ἄν) in Protasis;

Future Indicative, or Imperative, or some other expression implying futurity, in Apodosis.

Ἐὰν παρῇ, καλῶς ἕξει.

Ἐάν τι ἁμάρτῃς, ἀλγησεις.

REM. — The subjunctive with **ἐάν** in the Protasis often gives place, for greater vividness, to the future indicative with **εἰ**. In this case the condition becomes identical, in form and meaning, with one of the first form.

Εἰ πάρεσται, καλῶς ἕξει.

Fourth Form: Condition Imaginary. 22.

IV. **Sumptio Ficti.** Of that which is imaginary. Supposition referring to the future, but without present probability.

Optative in the Protasis;

Optative with ἄν in the Apodosis.

Εἰ παρείη, καλῶς ἂν ἔχοι.

Εἴ τι ἁμαρτάνοις, ἀλγοίης ἄν.

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Mixed Forms. 23.

Mixed forms are much less common in Latin than Greek. Yet we find examples like the following: —

Dies deficiet (3), **si velim** (4) **causam dicere.**

Day would (will) fail me, if I should wish to defend my cause.

Condition Implied. 24

The condition is sometimes involved in a participle, sometimes in some other word, and sometimes is merely implied.

Non potestis, omnia voluptate dirigentes, virtutem retinere.

You cannot, if you arrange everything according to pleasure, retain your manhood.

Pace tuâ, dixerim.

I would say it, by your leave.

Vellem.

I could wish.

Velim.

I should wish.

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Mixed forms. 23.

To express various shades of meaning, the third and fourth forms are sometimes blended, — the Protasis taking one, the Apodosis the other.

Ἐὰν παρῇ (3), καλῶς ἂν ἔχοι (4).

If he be present, it would be well.

Εἰ παρείη (4), καλῶς ἕξει (3).

Condition Implied. 24.

The condition is frequently involved in a participle, or is simply implied.

ἔχων = εἴ τι ἔχεις. / ἐάν τι ἔχῃς. / εἴ τι ἔχοις. / εἴ τι εἴχες. / εἴ τι ἔσχες.

ἠβουλόμην ἄν (εἰ ἠδυνάμην).

βουλοίμην ἄν (εἰ δυναίμην).

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General or Indefinite Conditions.

25.

Conditional sentences in Latin, as in Greek, may co tain the statement of a general truth, or may imp repeated action. They are, however, less common th in Greek, and do not require extended treatment.

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General or Indefinite Conditions. 25.

Compare the examples, —

A.
ἐάν τι λάβῃ, δώσει,
If he receives anything, he will give it,
εἴ τι λάβοι, δοίη ἄν,
If he should receive anything, he would give it,

with the following: —

B.
ἐάν τι λάβῃ, δίδωσι.
If he receives anything, he (uniformly) gives it.
εἴ τι λάβοι, ἐδίδου.
If he received anything, he (uniformly) gave it.

The first pair are Particular, the second, General Conditions. The first refer to a supposed single case; the second imply repeated action, or contain a general truth. In the first, εἰ or ἐάν really means "if in a particular instance"; in the second, "whenever."

It is further to be observed, in the second pair of examples, that: —

1. The mood of the Protasis is determined, not by considering the nature of the condition (whether it is taken for granted, contrary to fact, probable, or possible, Rules **19, 20, 21, 22**), but by the tense of the Apodosis, according to the principle of the sequence of moods (Rule **5**).

2. The verb of the Apodosis is in the indicative, and is a form expressing repeated action.

3. The Protases in both pairs of examples are identical; the verbs of the Apodosis, regularly in the indicative, and expressing repeated action, are what mark the second pair of conditions as general.

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Use of Moods in Indefinite Conditional Sentences. **26.**

General or indefinite conditions require, as a rule, indicative in both Protasis and Apodosis; yet the foll ing parallels to Greek usage may be given:—

1. *For present time,*—

Si quid accipiat, dat.

2. *For past time,*—

Accusatores, si facultas incideret, poer adficiebantur.

Hypothetical (or Conditional) Relative Sentences. **27.**

Conditional relative sentences, or sentences in wh the relative may be resolved into **si** with a personal demonstrative or indefinite pronoun, occur, of course, Latin. They require, however, no extended illustrati

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Use of Moods in Indefinite Conditional Sentences.
26.

We notice two forms of general conditions: —

1. *For present time,* —

Subjunctive with ἐάν in Protasis;
Present indicative in Apodosis.

2. *For past time,* —

Optative with εἰ in Protasis;
Past tense of indicative in Apodosis.

Cf., for examples, Rule **25**, B.

REM. — An important application of the principles just stated will be seen in the explanation of the employment of moods in temporal clauses. (Cf. Rule **29**, 2, p. 48.)

Hypothetical (or Conditional) Relative Sentences.
27.

Conditional relative sentences are relative sentences implying a condition. The conditions involved may be particular or general, and differ in no respect from the cases already explained, but are sufficiently illustrated by the following examples: —

A. — *Particular Conditions.*

1. Ἃ μὴ οἶδα, οὐδὲ οἴομαι εἰδέναι =
Εἴ τινα μὴ οἶδα, οὐδὲ οἴομαι εἰδέναι.

What I do not know (if I do not know a thing), I do not think I know.

2. Οὐκ ἂν ἐπεχειροῦμεν πράττειν ἃ μὴ ἠπιστάμεθα =
Εἴ τινα μὴ ἠπιστάμεθα, οὐκ ἂν ἐπεχειροῦμεν πράττειν.

We would not undertake to do what we did not understand.

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Concessive Clauses. **28.**

V. Concessive clauses are introduced by **quamqu quamvis, licet, ut,** and **cum,** *although.* Of these c junctions, the first is regularly joined with the indicati the others, with the subjunctive.

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A. — *Particular Conditions* (continued).

3. ὃ ἂν βούληται, δώσω =
ἐάν τι βούληται, δώσω.

I will give him (once) whatever he may wish.

4. ὅ τι βούλοιτο, δοίην ἄν =
εἴ τι βούλοιτο, δοίην ἄν.

I would give him (once) whatever he might wish.

B. — *General Conditions.*

1. ὃ ἂν βούληται δίδωμι =
ἐάν τι βούληται, δίδωμι.

I (uniformly) give him whatever he wants.

2. ὅ τι βούλοιτο, ἐδίδουν =
εἴ τι βούλοιτο, ἐδίδουν.

I (uniformly) gave him whatever he wanted.

Concessive Clauses. 28.

V. Concessive clauses are introduced by εἰ καί, ἐὰν καί, *even if;* and καὶ εἰ, κἄν (καὶ ἐάν), *although.* They show the same uses of moods as the various forms of the conditional sentences.

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Temporal Clauses. 29.

VI. 1. Temporal clauses are introduced by the following conjunctions:—

cum, { *when*, employed most frequently in historical narrative, and then followed by imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive.

ut, ubi, } *when*, **postquam**, *after that*, — with indicative.

antequam, priusquam, } *before that, before.*

ubi primum, simul ac, } *as soon as*, **quoties**, *as often as*, with indic.

quam diu, *as long as*, with indicative.

dum, *while*, always with indicative, except in the oratio obliqua.

dum, donec, quoad, } *until*, always with the subjunctive.

Use of Mood in Temporal Clauses.

2. The principle upon which the choice of mood depend may be thus stated (it applies especially to **antequam** and **priusquam**):—

Temporal conjunctions are followed by the indicative express definite time, *i. e.* when the event has actual happened or is certain to happen; when they denote re

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Temporal Clauses. 29.

VI. 1. Temporal clauses are introduced by the following conjunctions: —

ὅτε, ὁπότε, ἡνίκα, ὡς, — *when.*

ἐπεί, ἐπειδή, — *after.*

πρίν, — *before.*

ἕως, ἔστε, ἐν ᾧ, — *as long as, until, whilst.*

Use of Mood in Temporal Clauses.

2. All these conjunctions are followed by the indicative when they denote a definite point of time; when they denote some time not fixed or known, or refer to a number of occasions, they introduce semi-conditional clauses (general conditions), and furnish, in the moods employed, a precise parallel to them.

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Mood in Temporal Clauses.

tive time, *i. e.* when the event has not happened or is uncertain, they introduce semi-conditional clauses, and require the subjunctive.

Caesar, postquam urbem ceperat, Romam redivit.

Caesar, after he had taken the city, returned to Rome.

Ne judicaveris, priusquam omnia audiveris.

Do not judge before you have heard all.

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Mood in Temporal Clauses.

The following is the formula: —

After a primary tense, ἄν is annexed to the conjunction, generally forming one word with it, and the verb of the temporal clause is in the subjunctive. After a secondary tense, the verb of the temporal clause is in the optative, without ἄν.

ταῦτα ἐποίουν μέχρι σκότος ἐγένετο.

They did this until darkness came on (definite time).

ὅταν ἅπαντα ἀκούσῃς, κρῖνον.

When you (shall) have heard all, judge.

ἐπειδὴ δέ τι ἐμφάγοιεν, ἀνίσταντο.

After they had eaten something, they would rise up.

ὁπότε ὥρα εἴη ἀρίστου, ἀνέμενεν αὐτοὺς ἔστε ἐμφάγοιεν.

Whenever it was time for breakfast, he used to wait for them until they ate something.

οὐδαμόθεν ἀφίεσαν πρὶν παραθεῖεν αὐτοῖς ἄριστον.

They dismissed them from no place before spreading a meal before them.

REM. — πρίν, besides the constructions mentioned above, may take the infinitive in any tense.

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Infinitive. **30.**

The infinitive and the gerund, taken together, make *up* all the cases of a verbal noun (cf. English verbal nouns in *-ing*); *e.g.*, —

Nom. Errare humanum est.

Gen. Errandi cupidus est homo.

Dat. Errando aptus est homo.

Acc. { Errare homo amat. / Ad errandum homo aptus est.

Abl. Errando homo miser fit.

Participle. **31.**

The participle, in Latin, may be the equivalent of the adjective clause, and of the adverbial clause in most of its varieties; *e.g.*, —

Of an Adjective Clause: —

Epistulam sibi commissam (= quae commissa erat) detulit.

He delivered the letter which had been intrusted to him.

Of Adverbial Clauses: —

Final.

Alexander ad Jovem Ammonem pergit, consulturus (= ut consulat) de origine sua.

Alexander goes to Jupiter Ammon to consult respecting his origin.

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Infinitive. **30.**

The infinitive joined with the neuter article may be used in all the cases; *e. g.*, —

Nom. τὸ ἁμαρτάνειν.

Gen. τοῦ ἁμαρτάνειν.

Dat. τῷ ἁμαρτάνειν.

Acc. (τὸ) ἁμαρτάνειν.

Participle. **31.**

The participle, in Greek, is constantly employed as the equivalent of the adjective clause, and of the adverbial clause in all its varieties; *e. g.*, —

Of an Adjective Clause: —

ἀπέδωκε τὴν ἑαυτῷ ἐπιτεταμμένην ἐπιστολήν.

Of Adverbial Clauses: —

Final. Ἀλέξανδρος εἰς Ἄμμωνος (ἔδραν) ἔρχεται, ἐπερησόμενος περὶ τῆς αὐτοῦ γενέσεως.

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Participle.
Causal.

Nihil affirmo mihi ipse diffīdens (= quia diffido).

I affirm nothing, because I distrust myself.

Conditional.

Ad cenam vocatus (= si vocatus ero) ibo.

I will go to supper, if I am invited.

Concessive.

Non statim poenis adficiuntur, quotidie delinquentes (= cum delinquant).

They are not at once punished, although daily at fault.

Temporal.

Hoc ego digrediens lacrimis affabar obortis (digrediens = cum digrederer).

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Participle.

Causal.

οὐδὲν λέγω ἐμαυτῷ ἀπιστῶν.

Conditional.

εἰ ἔχω,	= ἔχων τι,	δίδωμι.
εἰ εἶχον,		ἐδίδων ἄν.
εἰ ἔσχον,		ἔδωκα ἄν.
ἐὰν ἔχω,		δώσω.
ἐὰν σχῶ,		δώσω.
εἰ ἔχοιμι,		διδοίην ἄν.
εἰ σχοίην,		δοίην ἄν.

Concessive.

καί περ ἁμαρτάνοντες καθ' ἑκάστην, οὐκ αὐτίκα δίκην διδόασιν.

(The concessive participle is commonly joined with καί περ.)

Temporal.

All participles denote this relation, and the Greek distinguishes very accurately by the use of the present, perfect or aorist, and future participle, whether the action denoted by the participle is represented as occurring simultaneously with, previous to, or subsequent to, that of the principal verb of the sentence.

παρελαύνων παρεκελεύετο.
While riding along he was encouraging.

ταῦτα ἀκούσας ἀπήλαυνεν.
When he had heard this, he rode away.

ξυνήεσαν βουλευσόμενοι.
They came together to consult.

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32. The various uses of the participle above enumerated all come under the head of circumstantial; *i. e.* the participle adds a circumstance, more or less important, modifying the principal verb or predicate of the sentence. If this circumstance is essential to the thought, and cannot be omitted without taking away the leading idea from the sentence, the participle is said to be supplementary.

The supplementary participle is used most frequently after the following verbs: —

1. Verbs of judging, feeling, knowing, &c., as the equivalent of a substantive clause. (Cf. Rule **7**, 3.)

2. Verbs of beginning, continuing, enduring, ceasing, &c.

NOTE. — The supplementary participle is especially common with **λανθάνω, παύομαι, τυγχάνω, φθάνω.**

ἐλάθομεν ἀφικόμενοι.
We arrived without knowing it.

ἐπαύσατο λέγων.
He ceased speaking.

ἔτυχε παρών.
He happened to be present.

φθάνουσιν τοὺς πολεμίους γενόμενοι ἐπὶ τῷ ἄκρῳ.
They anticipate the enemy in gaining the height.

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